



Carbon-supported Fe catalysts with well-defined active sites for highly selective alcohol production from Fischer-Tropsch synthesis

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ABSTRACT

Alcohols are important chemicals, and are considered as high value-added products from Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS). However, the unknown active sites and their unclear alcohol formation mechanism hinder the development of highly efficient catalysts. Herein, we report the design of low cost and scalable carbon-supported Fe (K-Fe/NC) catalyst with tailorable FTS selectivity via pyrolysis of Prussian Blue. Our K-Fe/NC catalyst exhibits alcohol selectivity as high as 30% containing 95% of C₂-C₁₃ fraction. The K-Fe/NC catalyst with a core-shell structure facilitates the investigation of iron structural evolution in FTS. The CO dissociation and association are thoroughly verified through theoretical calculations and the temperature-programmed surface reaction of CO. The synergistic effect between χ -Fe₅C₂/ε-Fe₂C and Fe₃O₄ dual active sites is proposed for the alcohol formation mechanism. This work provides significant insight into the development of low cost and highly efficient iron-based catalysts for alcohols in FTS.

1. Introduction

Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS) has been widely applied in industry for the conversion of coal, natural gas, and biomass into hydrocarbons and oxygenates. The FTS technology is desirable for the development of low cost and more efficient catalysts to produce high value-added clean and environmentally friendly products (lower olefins, α-olefins, alcohols, and other oxygenates) from renewable feedstocks [1,2]. Higher alcohols are industrial raw chemicals for detergent [3]. Compared with cobalt catalysts, the precipitated iron catalysts are economically attractive and highly abundant with relatively high selectivity towards alcohols. However, the precipitated iron catalysts undergo complex phase and structural evolution under FTS conditions due to the

carbonization of iron particles resulting in carbon deposition and fragmentation [4,5]. The complex structural evolution of the iron particles further hinders the identification of the active sites for the formation of alcohol products in FTS. Therefore, a deep understanding of the structural evolution of iron particles is crucial for the improvement of alcohol selectivity in FTS.

The traditional precipitated iron catalysts have been largely investigated to confirm the phase and structure evolution of iron particles. However, many factors hinder this investigation, for example: 1) the bulk precipitated iron catalysts undergo various carbonization degrees; 2) the residual iron oxides after reduction and carbonization may deposit onto the regenerated iron oxides during the reaction, confusing the real structure and phase evolution [6–8]. It was confirmed that the iron

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carbides are formed mainly beside and outside the Fe_3O_4 particle [9–11]. The investigation of iron evolution is impeded by the carbon deposition-induced fragmentation and the sintering-induced aggregation of iron particles. Shroff et al. observed that magnetite crystals were broken down into smaller crystallites of iron carbide phase due to the carbon deposition [12]. Ding et al. found that, during the carbonization process, the precipitated iron catalyst was firstly reduced from $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ to Fe_3O_4 , accompanied simultaneously by the formation of atomic, polymeric and graphitic-type carbonaceous species on the surface of the catalyst [13,14]. Davis et al. found that the iron particles of the spent precipitated iron catalyst are with a multi-shell structure as A@B@C [15]. The core of A is an iron carbide particle, the inner shell of B is composed of an iron oxide phase, and the outer shell of C is deposited carbon. So far, many debates about the structure and phase evolution of iron particles in FTS are in the literature, which impedes the identification of active phases. Therefore, it is necessary to design iron catalysts with stable and uniformly distributed iron particles for investigating the structure and phase evolution of the iron particles in FTS.

Currently, various bimetallic iron catalysts have been reported in the literature for the alcohol product in FTS, such as FeCu [16], FeRh [17], FeMo [18], etc. Taking the FeCu catalyst as an example, the synergistic effect of iron carbides and copper dual sites are considered as the active centers for alcohol formation [16]. Monometallic iron catalysts have also been demonstrated for considerable alcohol selectivity compared with bimetallic iron catalysts [19]. However, the alcohol selectivity over monometallic iron catalysts is very low and there is less discussion about their formation mechanism. It is meaningful to investigate the formation mechanism of the alcohol product on the monometallic iron catalysts and improve the alcohol selectivity in FTS.

Herein, we prepared carbon supported iron (K-Fe/NC) catalysts through the pyrolysis of Prussian Blue (PB, $\text{Fe}_4^{\text{III}}[\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}(\text{CN})_6]_3$) coordination polymer for alcohols of FTS. The K-Fe/NC catalyst presents uniformly distributed iron particles confined in the carbon matrix which benefits the investigation of the iron nanoparticle evolution. The in situ activation and structural and phase evolution of iron nanoparticles during FTS process was confirmed. The chemical adsorption and surface reaction techniques and theoretical calculations were applied to investigate the alcohol formation mechanism.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

Ferric nitrate nonahydrate ($\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$), ferrous sulfate heptahydrate ($\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$), potassium hexacyanoferrate (III) ($\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$), and trisodium citrate dihydrate ($\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd, Silicon dioxide (SiO_2 , BET surface area = $300 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and particle size = 30–60 mesh) was purchased from Aladdin company. All chemical reagents were analytical grade and used without any treatment. Deionized water (DI) was used in all the above experiments. Washing was done with deionized water and reagent-grade ethanol.

2.2. Synthesis of PB

PB as precursors for the subsequent experiments was prepared by a simple precipitation method, as reported in the literature [20]. Firstly, solution A was obtained by adding 0.6 mmol of $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.9 mmol of $\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ into 20 ml of deionized water. Secondly, solution B was obtained by adding 0.4 mmol of $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$ into 20 ml of deionized water. Thirdly, solution B was added slowly into solution A under vigorous and continuously stirring, and then the obtained mixture was aged at room temperature for 24 h. Finally, the aged mixture was treated by centrifugation, washing with water and ethanol, and drying at 60°C overnight. The PB powder was obtained.

2.3. Synthesis of K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst

The as-prepared PB powder was further pyrolyzed at 500°C for 4 h with a heating rate of 3°C min^{-1} under a flow of N_2 atmosphere. After the pyrolysis process, the temperature was decreased to room temperature under N_2 atmosphere, and then the N_2 was changed to air for the passivation of the K-Fe/NC catalyst. Finally, the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst was obtained. Particularly, the K-Fe/NC-fresh and K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst were denoted as the freshly prepared K-Fe/NC catalyst without and with air passivation respectively. The reference $15\text{Fe}/\text{SiO}_2$ catalyst was prepared by the incipient-wetness impregnation method. 1.09 g Fe (NO_3) $_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ was dissolved in 3.00 g DI water, and 0.85 g SiO_2 was impregnated repeatedly by the above solution. After drying, the subsequent calcination was carried out at 450°C for 4 h with a heating rate of 3°C min^{-1} under a flow of air atmosphere.

2.4. Catalyst characterization

A Rigaku D/Max2500PC diffractometer with Cu $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$) was used to perform powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) at room temperature in the 2θ range of $5\text{--}80^\circ$ (5° min^{-1}). *In situ* XRD was performed with the temperature-programmed process in N_2 with a heating rate of 5° min^{-1} . The temperature and 2θ range were $30\text{--}400^\circ\text{C}$ and $10\text{--}70^\circ$ respectively. The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were recorded with a FEI Tecnai G^2 Spirit microscope operated at 120 kV. The high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images were taken using a FEI Tecnai G^2 F30S-Twin microscope operated at 300 kV. The elemental mapping was tested on a JEM ARM200F thermal-field emission microscope with a probe spherical aberration (Cs) corrector at 200 kV. A convergence angle of $\sim 23 \text{ mrad}$ and a collection angle range of $68\text{--}174 \text{ mrad}$ were adapted for the high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) imaging. For the TEM sample preparation, the sample was dispersed in ethanol and dropped onto the copper grids and dried on a hot plate for a while (80°C). The temperature-programmed desorption of CO (CO-TPD) was carried out on a Micromeritics Autochem II 2920 chemisorption apparatus. For the sample with CO-0.3 h pretreatment, 0.1 g of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst was firstly pretreated at 240°C under 10% CO/He (balanced by He) (30 ml min^{-1}) for 0.3 h. The temperature was decreased to 50°C in He and then the sample was exposed to 10% CO/He at 50°C for 1 h. After purging in He for 1 h, the sample with adsorbed CO underwent the temperature-programmed desorption of CO from 50° to 700°C and the desorbed gas was monitored by a mass spectrometer (MS). Similarly, the samples with CO-2 h pretreatment, CO_2 -2 h pretreatment, and syngas-2 h ($\text{H}_2/\text{CO}=2$) pretreatment were performed as that the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalysts were pretreated with CO, CO_2 , and syngas at 240°C for 2 h. The sample with H_2 -2 h pretreatment was performed as that the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalysts were pretreated with H_2 at 400°C for 2 h. The subsequent CO-TPD followed the same procedure with the CO-0.3 h pretreatment sample. The sample without pretreatment was performed as the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst without any pretreatment underwent the temperature-programmed desorption in He from 50° to 700°C . The temperature-programmed surface reaction of CO (CO-TPSR) was tested on the same apparatus as CO-TPD. 0.1 g of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst was pretreated at 240°C under 10% CO/He (30 ml min^{-1}) for 0.3 h or 2 h (CO-0.3 h/2 h pretreatment). After the temperature decreased to 50°C in He, the sample was exposed to 10% CO/He at 50°C for 1 h. Then He purging was carried out. The purged sample underwent temperature-programmed desorption in 10% H_2/He (30 ml min^{-1}) from 50° to 700°C and the desorbed gas was monitored by MS. The room temperature ^{57}Fe Mössbauer spectra were recorded using a proportional counter and a Topologic 500 A spectrometer. A ^{57}Co (Rh), moving with a constant acceleration mode, was used as the γ -ray radioactive source. The velocity was calibrated by a standard $\alpha\text{-Fe}$ foil. The spectra were fitted on the base of Lorentzian adsorption curves using MossWinn 3.0i

computer program. The derived hyperfine parameters, such as isomer shift (IS), quadruple splitting (QS), and magnetic hyperfine field (H), were employed for component identification. The phase content was obtained based on the areas of the adsorption peaks, assuming the iron nuclei for all catalysts have the same probability of adsorption of γ photons. Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA) was performed on a PerkinElmer TGA4000 with nitrogen as a carrier gas. Nitrogen adsorption-desorption data was acquired using a Micromeritics Tristar II 2460 automated analyzer at 77 K. The specific surface area was calculated using the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method. Before analysis, the samples were degassed at 120 °C under a vacuum overnight. Raman measurements were obtained by NanoWizard Ultra Speed & inVia Raman spectrometer using the laser with an excitation wavelength of 532 nm. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted using a KRATOS Axis Ultra^{DLD} spectrometer equipped with a monochromated aluminum source (Al K α = 1486.6 eV) and charge compensation gun. Charge correction with C 1 s = 284.60 eV as the energy standard. Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) was carried out on an ICPS-8100 to confirm the content of the metal. The sample was previously calcined at 600 °C in the air to remove carbon species and then dissolved in acid (An acidic mixture of HNO₃ and HCl). The element analyzer (EMGA-930) was used for the element analysis of O, N, and H. The element analysis of C was confirmed by an Element analyzer (EMIA-8100).

2.5. Catalyst testing

The FTS reaction was carried out in a fixed-bed reactor with an inner diameter of 10 mm and a bed length of 53 cm. 0.50 g of PB precursors (20–40 mesh) and 1.80 g of silica sand were loaded into the reaction tube. Before the reaction, the catalyst was in situ pyrolyzed in nitrogen (30 ml min⁻¹) at 500 °C for 4 h and then cooled to 180 °C. After the pyrolysis, the FTS reactions were carried out at 240 °C, 3 MPa, and a gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) of 4.5 L g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ in syngas (H₂/CO = 2). 4% of N₂ in CO was used as a reference gas for calculating CO conversion. The gas products of CO, CO₂, and CH₄ were analyzed by an online gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with a Thermal Conductivity Detector (TCD) and columns of Molecular sieve-13X (80/100 mesh, 3.0 m × 3.2 mm × 2.1 mm) and Porapak-N (80/100 mesh, 1.0 m × 3.2 mm × 2.1 mm). The other gas products of CH₄ and C₂–C₄ hydrocarbon were analyzed by the on-line GC with a Flame Ionization Detector (FID) and column of Rt-QPLOT (0.32 mm × 10 μ m × 30 m). Liquid products were collected in a cold trap at 2 °C and the liquid oil product of C₅ + hydrocarbons and oxygenates were analyzed on an offline GC equipped with an FID detector and column of Rtx-1 (SH-Rtx-1 3.0 m × 3.2 mm × 2.5 mm). The liquid C₁–C₅ oxygenates in the water phase were analyzed by an offline GC with FID detector and a column of SH-Stailwax-DA (3.0 m × 3.2 mm × 2.5 mm). Only trace amounts of oxygenates were detected from water for the 15Fe/SiO₂ catalyst, hence the oxygenates in the water phase can be ignored. A hot trap of 150 °C was used to collect wax products and there is no wax product for the K-Fe/NC catalyst. The cold trap and the hot trap were operated to collect the product at a time on stream (TOS) of 24 h and 60 h, respectively. The carbon balance of all carbon-containing products was above 93%. After the FTS reaction, the temperature of the reactor was decreased to room temperature under N₂ atmosphere, and then the flow of N₂ was changed to that of air for the passivation of the spent K-Fe/NC catalyst. Finally, the K-Fe/NC-spent-P catalyst was obtained. The CO conversion and product selectivity were calculated according to literature [21], and the equations were listed in the supporting information.

2.6. DFT calculations

2.6.1. Computational methods

Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations with spin-polarization were applied using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [22],

the exchange-correlation energies were calculated by the generalized gradient approximation joints to the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (GGA-PBE) functional [23].

2.6.2. Catalyst models

Fe₃O₄ with *Fd-3m* space group corresponds to the lattice constants of 8.390 Å, which agrees with the previous studies ($a=b=c=8.394$ Å) [24, 25]. As shown in Fig. S1a, the unit cell of Fe₃O₄ has an anti-spinel structure [Fe³⁺]_{tet}[Fe²⁺Fe³⁺]_{oct}O₄²⁻, both the tetrahedral (tet) and octahedral (oct) sites are occupied by Fe ions. The hexagonal ϵ -Fe₂C phases (Fig. S1b) with *P63/mmc* space group have the lattice constants of $a=5.486$ Å, $b=5.647$ Å, $c=4.284$ Å, which is closer to the previous results ($a=5.472$ Å, $b=5.639$ Å, $c=4.280$ Å) [26,27]. The bulk of χ -Fe₅C₂ is the monoclinic phase with *C2/c* symmetry (Fig. S1c) and the lattice constants of $a=11.545$ Å, $b=4.496$ Å, $c=4.982$ Å, which are consistent with the experimental values of $a=11.558$ Å, $b=4.579$ Å, $c=5.069$ Å [28,29]. The most exposed Fe₃O₄(311), ϵ -Fe₂C(101) and χ -Fe₅C₂(510) surfaces were chosen as the model catalysts using the $p(1 \times 2)$, $p(2 \times 2)$ and $p(2 \times 1)$ supercell, respectively (see Fig. S1d–f). The detailed structure parameters are summarized in Table S1.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalytic performances

The PB precursor underwent in situ pyrolysis in the fixed-bed reactor and the obtained K-Fe/NC-fresh catalyst has been directly tested in the FTS reaction without air exposure. As shown in Fig. 1A, the CO conversion can be divided into two stages with a decrease of the CO conversion at the beginning of TOS (0–24 h) and further stabilization (24–60 h). At the initial reaction stage, the CO conversion shows a downward trend with an increase of the selectivity to methane and lower olefins with a decrease of the selectivity to C₅+ and oxygenates (Fig. 1D). The K-Fe/NC catalyst demonstrates a higher CO₂ selectivity of 45% in comparison with 15% over impregnated 15Fe/SiO₂ catalyst. The high CO₂ selectivity of K-Fe/NC catalyst comes from the water gas shift (WGS) reaction (CO + H₂O = CO₂ + H₂), hence there is no water in the products due to the water consumption by WGS. It has to be noted that the carbon number of the oil product is less than 25 over K-Fe/NC catalyst, which is lower than that of the 15Fe/SiO₂ reference catalyst (Figs. 1B, E, H, S2). There is a much higher amount of C₅ + paraffins for the 0–24 h oil than that of the 24–60 oil. It can be explained by the modification of the catalyst during the first 24 h of the test. For the K-Fe/NC catalyst, the chain growth probability of α values obtained from the Anderson-Schulz-Flory (ASF) distribution is similar with alcohols of 0.62 and 0.61 as well as α -olefins of 0.67 and 0.66 in the 0–24 h and 24–60 h oil product, respectively (Fig. 1C, F). It is supposed that two types of active sites are responsible for the alcohol and paraffin product, and the contribution of the active sites for paraffins generation is decreasing as the reaction proceeds from the initial to the stable stage. The 15Fe/SiO₂ catalyst exhibits similar α values of α -olefins and slightly higher that of alcohols, compared with K-Fe/NC catalyst (Fig. 1I). The fraction of alcohols produced over K-Fe/NC catalyst at the stable stage contains 5% of methanol, 56% of C₂OH–C₅OH and 39% of C₆OH–C₁₃OH (Fig. 1G).

The traditional precipitated iron catalysts in the previous works exhibited 8–9% oxygenate selectivity, denoting the alcohol selectivity below that value [9,30–32]. The potassium promoter facilitates olefin formation. The Fe time yield (FTY) of K-Fe/NC catalyst is a little lower than that of the impregnated 15Fe/SiO₂ catalyst and the precipitated iron catalysts from the literature, probably due to the deep carbonization of iron in K-Fe/NC catalyst. The alcohol selectivity of K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h can achieve 30% at the selectivity to lower olefins and linear α -olefins (LAO) 23% and 14%, respectively, which are all much higher than that of the 15Fe/SiO₂ catalyst and the precipitated iron catalysts reported in the literature (Table 1). The special phase

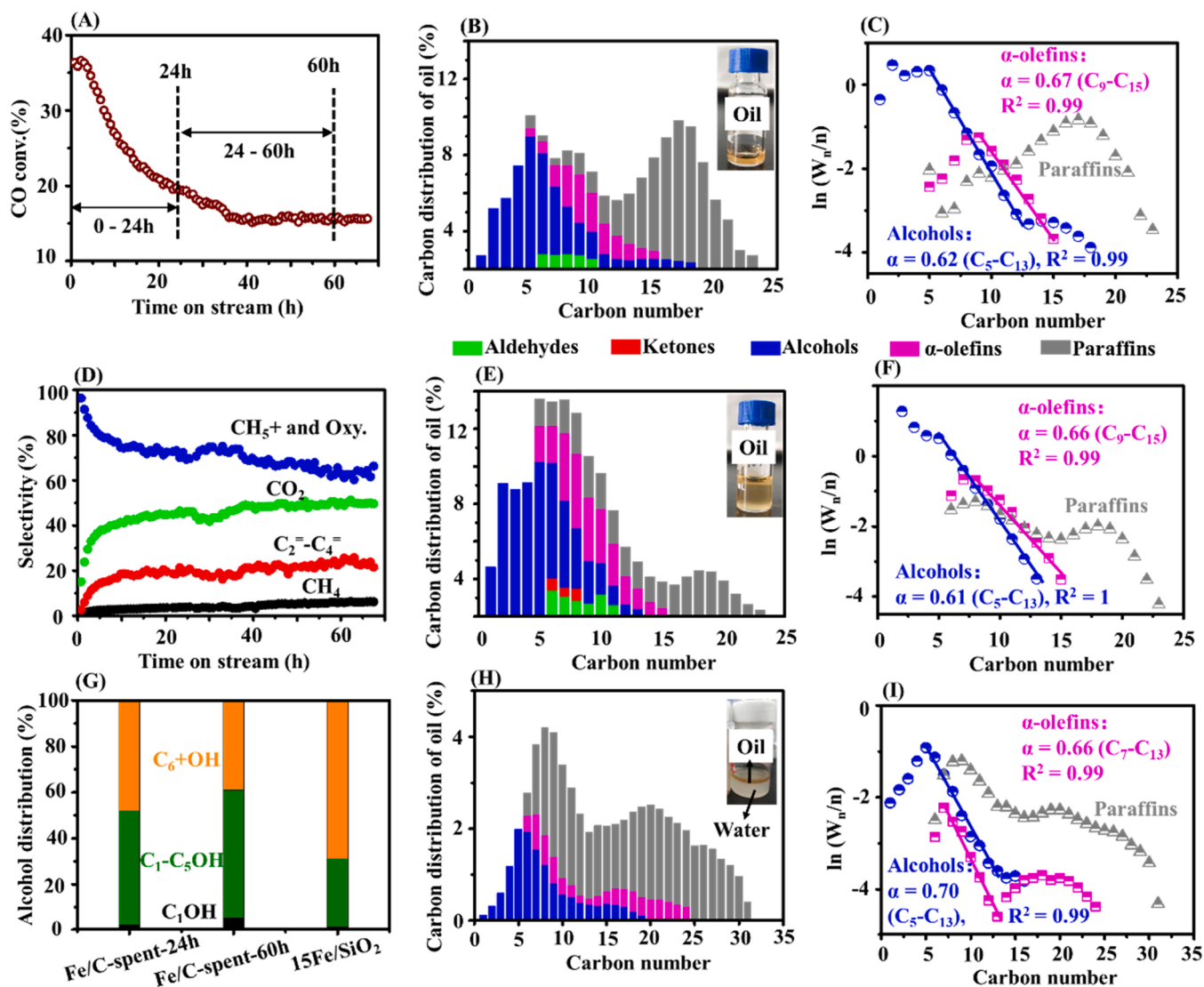


Fig. 1. Catalytic performances. CO conversion vs TOS (A). The carbon number distribution of the oil product collected at TOS of 0–24 h (B) and 24–60 h (E) for the K-Fe/NC catalyst, and the corresponding ASF plots of TOS of 0–24 h (C) and 24–60 h (F). CH_4 , C_2 – C_4 , C_5 +, and Oxy., and CO_2 selectivity vs TOS (D). The alcohol distribution (G). The carbon number distribution of the oil and wax product for the impregnated $15\text{Fe}/\text{SiO}_2$ catalyst (H), and the corresponding ASF plots (I). Aldehydes (green), ketones (red), α -olefins (pink), alcohols (blue), and paraffins (gray). α denotes the carbon chain growth probability. W_n denotes the mass fraction of the product, n denotes the carbon number. CH_5 + and Oxy. denotes hydrocarbons with carbon number above 5 and oxygenates. C_1OH denotes methanol. $\text{C}_2\text{C}_5\text{OH}$ denotes alcohols with carbon number of 2–5. $\text{C}_6\text{OH}+$ denotes alcohols with carbon number above 6.

composition of the K-Fe/NC catalyst contributes to the high alcohol selectivity. The K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h demonstrates lower CH_4 selectivity than the $15\text{Fe}/\text{SiO}_2$ catalyst due to the lower H_2 adsorption in the presence of potassium.

3.2. Catalyst structural investigation

Fig. 2A shows the schematic diagram of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P preparation through the pyrolysis of PB and the subsequent passivation. PB is an important coordination polymer, in which two different metal centers Fe^{3+} and Fe^{2+} are bridged by the CN^- groups [33,34]. During the pyrolysis process, iron ions may agglomerate into iron carbide/nitride particles, and the CN^- turns into a porous N-doped carbon matrix. The $\text{FeC}_x/\text{FeN}_x$ @ FeO_x core-shell structure is generated via the passivation of $\text{FeC}_x/\text{FeN}_x$ core in the air. The TEM image shows 50–100 nm of PB particles (Fig. 2C). The pyrolysis of the PB precursor starts at 100°C , and the surface area is $38.3\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. The I_D/I_G ratio of Raman spectra is 1.2, indicating a considerable graphitization degree of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P

catalyst (Fig. S3). XRD patterns demonstrate the disappearance of the PB diffraction peaks and growth of the $\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ peaks with an increase of the pyrolysis temperature from 25° to 500°C (Fig. 2B). From Fig. 2D, it is evident that the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst consists of nanoparticles with sizes of $\sim 20\text{ nm}$. The HRTEM images demonstrate that all particles present a core-shell structure with a shell thickness of 5 nm (Fig. 2E). The core shows clear lattice fringes with an interplanar distance of 2.01 \AA , which can be ascribed to the (101) planes of $\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ (Fig. 2F). The shell presents the lattice fringes of Fe_3O_4 (311).

The impregnated $15\text{Fe}/\text{SiO}_2$ presents disordered iron particles distributed in SiO_2 support without clear boundaries (Fig. 3A), which makes it hard to investigate the structural evolution of iron particles. However, the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst manifests well-distributed iron particles in the carbon matrix with a particle size of $\sim 20\text{ nm}$ (Fig. 3B). The structure and phase evolution of iron particles can be well observed by investigation of the K-Fe/NC catalyst. The HRTEM of K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst presents the core with $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2$ (510) / $\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ (101) lattice fringes and the shell with Fe_3O_4 (311) lattice fringes

Table 1

Catalytic performances of the K-Fe/NC catalyst and the reference catalyst in comparison with the literature.

Catalysts	Metal state			T /°C	CO Conv. (%) ^[c]	FTY (mmol _{CO} g _{Fe-1} h ⁻¹) ^[d]	CO ₂ sel. (%) ^[e]	Product selectivity (%)							Ref.
	Fe (wt %) ^[a]	K (wt %)	Size (nm) ^[b]					CH ₄	C ₂ - C ₄ - ^[f]	C ₂ - C ₄ - ^[g]	C ₅ + ^[h]	C ₅ + ^[i]	ROH ^[j]	RO ^[k]	
K-Fe/NC-spent-24h	61	2	20	240	21	15	45	3	18	4	37	9	27	2	This work
K-Fe/NC-spent-60h					16	11	49	5	23	6	17	14	30	5	
15Fe/SiO ₂	15	0	15	240	18	26	15	16	15	13	34	7	15	0	[31]
30Fe/SiO ₂	30	0	15	240	27	40	10	11	12	13	39	8	17	0	
100Fe	100	0	11	280	35	29	26	18	43		31		8		
100Fe/20SiO ₂	83	0	14	270	64	23	26	20	43		38		9		
100Fe12Mn1.5K/10SiO ₂	81	1	2	260	43	9	34	9	31		51		9		
								CH ₄	C ₂ - C ₄ - ^[f]	C ₂ - C ₄ - ^[g]	C ₅ - C ₁₁ - ^[p]	C ₅ - C ₁₁ - ^[p]	C ₁₂ + ^[q]	Oxy.	[32]
100Fe	100	0		260	75	20	45	8	7.2	3.6	14	12	55	0	
100Fe5K	95	5		260	76	21	46	4	4	1	5	15	71	0	

Reaction condition: 240 °C, 3.0 MPa, H₂/CO = 2.0, 4000 h⁻¹ (K-Fe/NC), 3000 h⁻¹ (15Fe/SiO₂). Ref. [31]: 1.5MPa, H₂/CO=1.6, 3000h⁻¹, TOS=193h. Ref. [9]: 2MPa, H₂/CO=1.5, 2000h⁻¹, TOS=72h. Ref. [30]: 1.5MPa, H₂/CO=1.2, 2000h⁻¹, TOS=162h. Ref. [32]: 1.5MPa, H₂/CO=0.67, 1000h⁻¹, TOS=97h. Notes: K-Fe/NC-spent-24h and K-Fe/NC-spent-60h samples denote the catalytic data for the TOS of 24h with 0-24h oil, and TOS of 60h with 24-60h oil, respectively. [a] Fe and K content obtained from ICP-OES. [b] Metal size obtained from TEM. [c] CO conv. denotes CO conversion. [d] FTY denotes Iron time yield, the converted CO amount per unit time and unit mass of iron. [e] CO₂ sel. denotes CO₂ selectivity. [f] C₂-C₄- denotes olefins with carbon number of 2-4. [g] C₂-C₄- denotes paraffins with carbon number of 2-4. [h] C₅+ denotes paraffins with carbon number above 5. [i] C₅+ denotes α-olefins with carbon number above 5. [j] ROH denotes alcohols. [k] RO denotes aldehydes and ketones. [l] C₂-C₄ denotes hydrocarbons with carbon number of 2-4. [m] C₅+ denotes hydrocarbons with carbon number above 5. [n] Oxy. denotes oxygenates. [o] C₅-C₁₁- denotes olefins with carbon number of 5-11. [p] C₅-C₁₁- denotes paraffins with carbon number of 5-11. [q] C₁₂+ denotes hydrocarbon with carbon number above 12.

(Fig. 3C). HAADF-STEM confirms the core-shell structure of the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst and the corresponding elemental mapping images present the core is mainly composed of C and Fe while the shell contains O and Fe (Fig. 3D). The element content in the bulk and surface are determined by ICP-OES, element analysis, and XPS (Figs. S4, S5, Table S2). The bulk of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst mainly contains Fe, C, O, K, and N elements with Fe accounting for 60.5%. The XPS survey spectrum of the K-Fe/NC catalysts indicates that the surface contains Fe, C, O, K, and N. The surface composition of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P and the K-Fe/NC-spent-2 h-P catalysts is dominated by O, accounting for 65.2% and 62.8% respectively. Yet K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P is dominated by C, accounting for 67.6%, which may be caused by carbon deposition during the FTS reaction. The XPS spectra of the C1s showed that all three samples are mainly C sp², accompanied by a small amount of C sp³. The C sp² belongs to the graphitized carbon matrix. The XPS spectra of the O 1s of K-Fe/NC-fresh-P showed that 45.9% of H₂O at a characteristic binding energy peak of 532.5 eV and 54.1% of Fe-OH at 531.6 eV. As shown in Fig. 3E, the XPS spectrum of the Fe 2p region of all three samples can be fitted with two spin-orbit doublets corresponding to the Fe 2p_{3/2} and Fe 2p_{1/2} peaks and the corresponding satellite peaks of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺, which are typical characteristic peaks of Fe₃O₄ [35]. The Fe₃O₄ peaks of all three samples are assigned to the iron oxide shell of iron particles in K-Fe/NC catalyst. From Fig. 3F, it can be seen that the fresh and spent K-Fe/NC catalysts demonstrate ε-Fe₂C diffraction peaks, with some Fe₃O₄ peaks emerging (standard XRD patterns, ε-Fe₂C: #17-0897, χ-Fe₅C₂: #51-0997, Fe₃O₄: #19-0629).

As shown in Fig. 4 (A) and (D), the Mössbauer spectra of K-Fe/NC-fresh-P indicate the coexistence of FeN₄, Fe_xC, θ-Fe₃C, ε-Fe₂C, and FeO_x species. The Fe_xC phase belongs to the iron phase with the Bhv value of 11.05 T (Table S3). The K-Fe/NC-fresh-P exhibit strong fitting peaks of FeO_x, accounting for 38.6%. The ε-Fe₂C phase is in good accordance with the XRD results (Fig. 3F). The K-Fe/NC-spent-2 h-P catalyst demonstrates 51.1% of χ-Fe₅C₂, 19.7% of Fe₃O₄ and 29.2% of FeO_x, which means the various iron carbides/nitrides in the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst were transformed into χ-Fe₅C₂ during the FTS process (Fig. 4B, E, Table S3). For the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst, the ratio of χ-Fe₅C₂(I),

χ-Fe₅C₂(II), and χ-Fe₅C₂(III) is fixed to 2:2:1 to simulate the experimental data better (Fig. 4C, F). The emergence of χ-Fe₅C₂ and ε-Fe₂C phases in the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst is reasonable and has been observed in the spent iron-base catalysts in FTS [36,37]. Hence, it can be concluded that the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst mainly consists of χ-Fe₅C₂, ε-Fe₂C, and Fe₃O₄ phases as well as FeO_x phase. Furthermore, the close contact between potassium and iron carbides enhances the crystallinity and stability of carbides.

The Mössbauer spectra of FeO_x represent the doublet peak which means its superparamagnetic property and the small particle size (< 10 nm). The FeO_x phase belongs to the shell of the K-Fe/NC particles. A surface oxide layer formed after passivation is usually amorphous, however, it could be transformed to crystalline magnetite (Fe₃O₄) under electron beam irradiation during TEM analysis [7,8,38,39]. The shell of amorphous FeO_x is formed by air passivation, which is transformed into Fe₃O₄ phase by beam-induced heating during TEM analysis. Hence, the shell presents Fe₃O₄ phase in HRTEM (Figs. 2F, 3C). A small amount of Fe₃O₄ phases are generated during FTS in the spent K-Fe/NC catalyst, detected by Mössbauer spectra and XRD results, presenting in the bulk or the core of the iron particles. These Fe₃O₄ phases are hard to be observed from HRTEM due to their small amount and the beam-induced iron phase evolution, and only χ-Fe₅C₂ and ε-Fe₂C phases are observed in the core of the spent K-Fe/NC catalyst.

The characterization by TEM, XRD, and Mössbauer spectra can only determine the presence of iron phases and their amounts. However, the amount of accessible active sites is still unknown. The exposed active sites could be detected by the CO-TPD and the CO-TPSR. There are CO and CO₂ desorption peaks, accompanied by a small CH₄ desorption peak, for the TPD curves of K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst without pretreatment (Fig. 5A). It is supposed that the desorbed CO comes from the oxidation of iron carbides by iron oxides. The desorbed CO₂ and CH₄ are generated from the interaction of the residual C, O and H elements in the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst during the TPD. The hydrogen pretreated K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst presents a similar CO desorption peak area before and after pretreatment (Figs. S6A, S7, Table S4). The FeC_x/FeN_x@FeO_x core-shell particles in the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst were reduced to

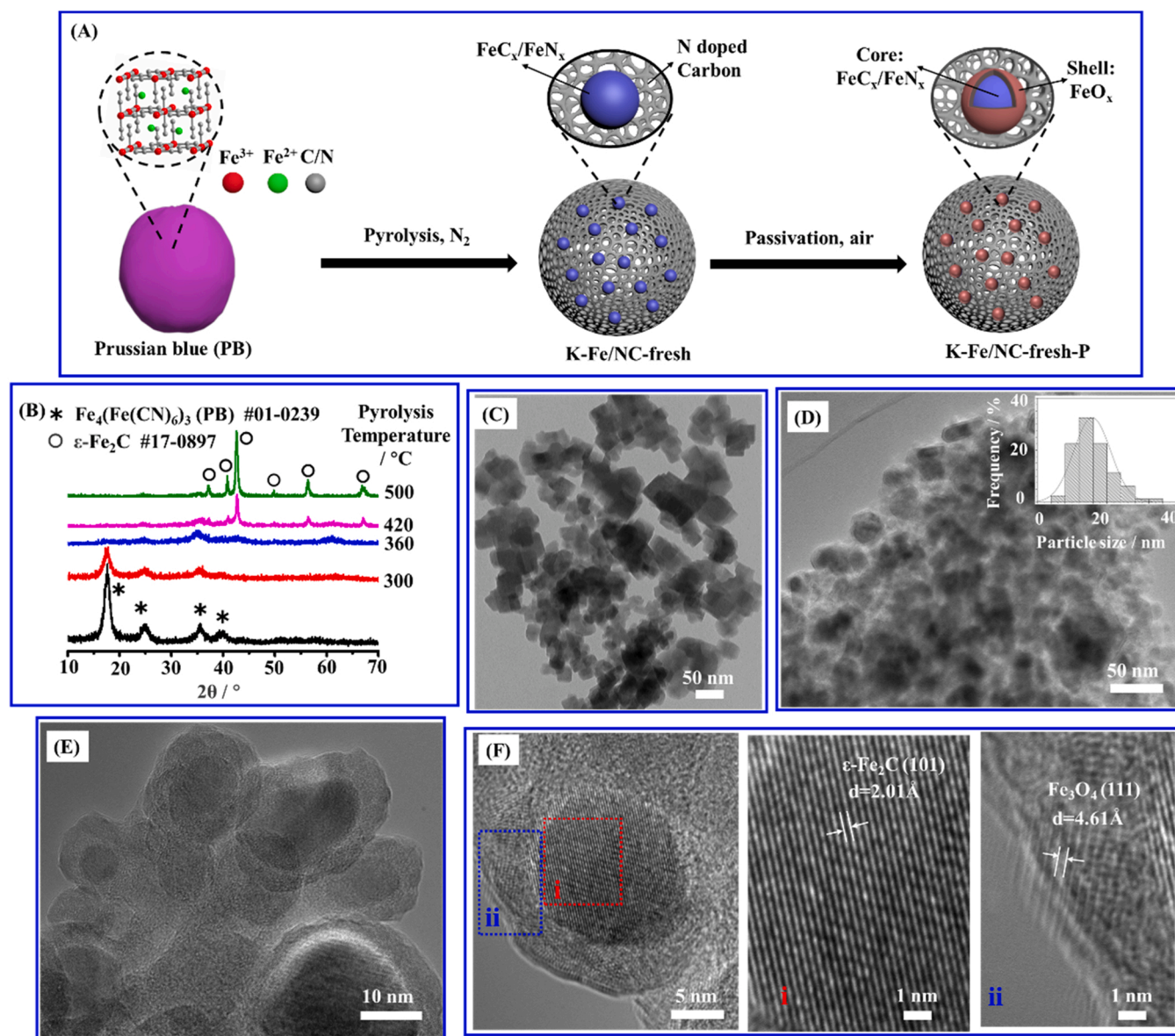


Fig. 2. Architectures of the fresh K-Fe/NC catalyst. Schematic diagram (A) and in situ XRD patterns (B) of the pyrolysis process from PB to the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst. The TEM image of PB (C) and the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst (D) with the size distribution histogram of the iron nanoparticles (the size distribution of iron nanoparticle size is obtained from TEM images analysis by using at least 100 nanoparticles), the overall HRTEM image (E), the HRTEM image and the corresponding lattice fringes (F) of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst. K-Fe/NC-fresh denotes the freshly prepared K-Fe/NC catalyst without passivation. K-Fe/NC-fresh-P denotes the freshly prepared K-Fe/NC catalyst with air passivation.

metal iron (Fe^0) particles during the hydrogen pretreatment. The similar CO desorption peak area of the sample without pretreatment and with hydrogen pretreatment implies that the metal iron (Fe^0) phase does not adsorb CO. The syngas pretreated K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst also presents a similar CO desorption peak area to that without pretreatment (Figs. S6B, S7, Table S4). It is supposed that the FeO_x shell of the $FeC_x/FeN_x @ FeO_x$ particles in the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst can not be carbonized by syngas. The similar CO desorption peak area of the sample without and with syngas pretreatment implies the air passivated FeO_x shell does not absorb CO, indicating the FeO_x shell can not be carbonized by the syngas pretreatment. The tiny difference in the desorption temperature and peak area for K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst without or with hydrogen/syngas pretreatment might be related to the slight change of iron state induced by various pretreatments (Fig. S7, Table S4).

The K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalysts pretreated by CO for 0.3 h and 2 h manifest considerable CO and CO_2 desorption peaks even in comparison with that of the sample without pretreatment (Fig. 5B, C). Generally, the

first CO desorption peak corresponds to the weakly adsorbed CO and the second peak to the strongly adsorbed CO [40]. The strongly adsorbed CO may induce the dissociation of CO into C^* and O^* and the weakly adsorbed CO may produce the associated CO^* during FTS reaction [41]. The CO_2 desorption peaks come from the reaction between the weakly adsorbed CO and the O element of the sample itself. The CH_4 desorption peaks are generated from the interaction between the trace dissociated C^* and the residual hydrogen of the sample itself [42]. The CO pretreatment is generally known as an effective approach to transform iron oxides into iron carbides [37,43]. We may suppose the $\chi-Fe_5C_2$, $\epsilon-Fe_2C$ and Fe_3O_4 phases of the K-Fe/NC catalyst are the main accessible active phases for CO adsorption. The CO-0.3 h pretreated K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst presents two significant CO desorption peaks at 489.6 °C and 628.3 °C and the corresponding peak areas of 7.2 and 16.9, respectively (Fig. 5D). The CO desorption peak temperatures and area of the CO-2 h pretreated sample are both lower than that of the CO-0.3 h pretreated sample, indicating the increase of CO pretreatment time may decrease

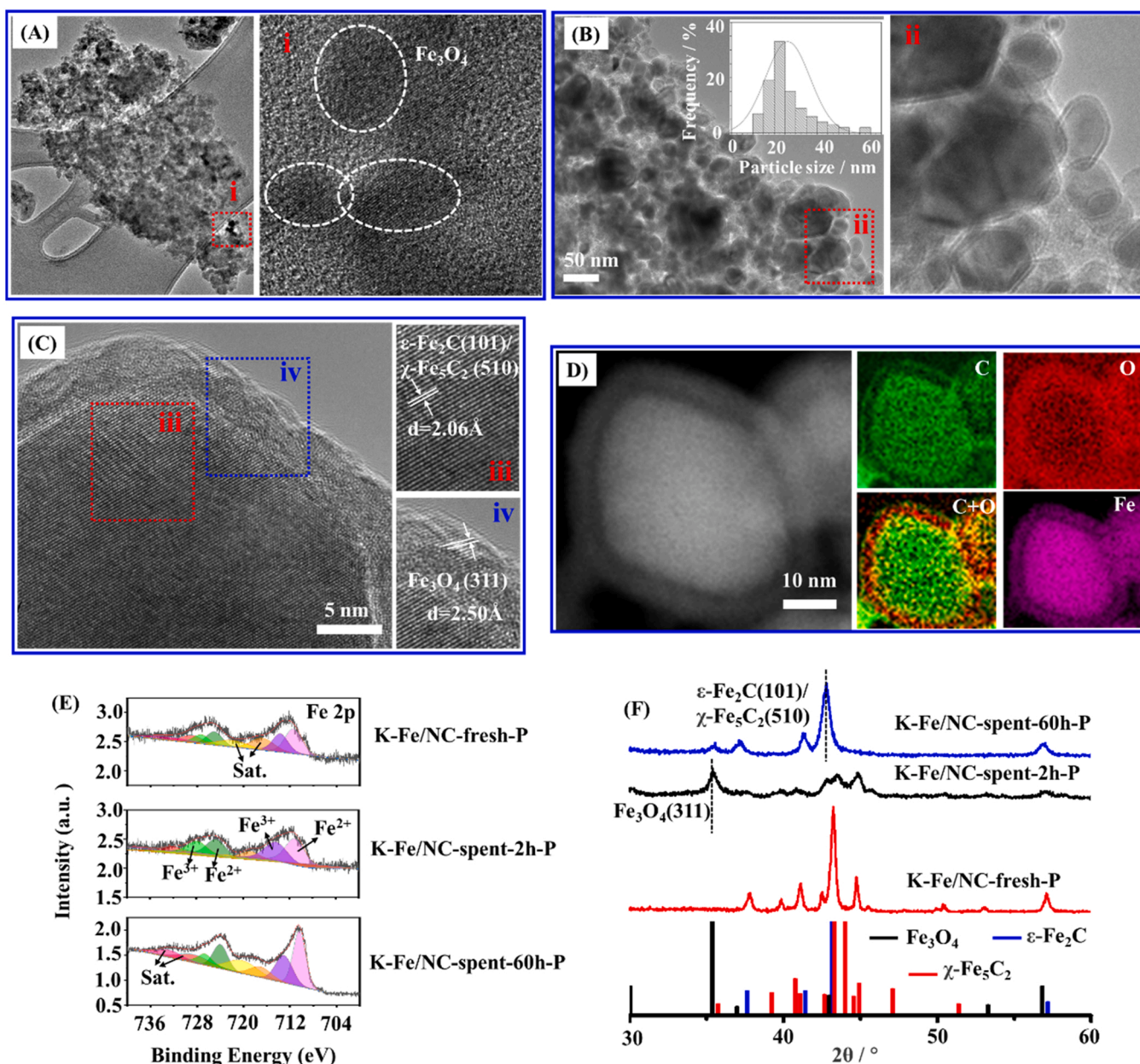


Fig. 3. TEM image of 15Fe/SiO₂ (A). The overall TEM image (B) with the size distribution histogram of the iron nanoparticles (the size distribution of iron nanoparticle size is obtained from TEM images analysis by using at least 100 nanoparticles), HRTEM image and the corresponding lattice fringes (C), the STEM and EDS elemental mapping images (D) of the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst. XPS spectra of Fe 2p (E) and XRD patterns (F) of the K-Fe/NC catalysts. K-Fe/NC-spent-2 h-P and K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P denote the spent K-Fe/NC catalysts with TOS of 2 h and 60 h as well as the air passivation, respectively.

the CO adsorption amount and reduce the CO adsorption active sites. The peak area and temperatures of CO, CH₄, and CO₂ exhibit the same trend (Fig. S7, Table S4). The increase in the CO pretreatment time may lead to more carbon deposition on the exposed active sites, resulting in less accessible active sites for CO adsorption [12–14,37].

CO-TPSR experiments are designed to further confirm the accessible active sites for CO dissociation and association. As shown in Fig. 5E, the CO-TPSR spectra of the CO pretreated K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst mainly exhibits the desorption peaks of CO, CO₂, CH₄, OH* and H₂O. The localization and the area of the peak can provide information about the amount of accessible active sites for CH₄ formation (Figs. S8, S9, Table S5). During the CO adsorption (10% CO/He) step, the strongly adsorbed CO undergoes the H-assisted CO dissociation on the $\gamma\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2/\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ active sites, forming C* and O* (Fig. S10). Simultaneously, the weakly adsorbed CO experiences CO association on the Fe₃O₄ active site,

forming CO*. When the hydrogen (10% H₂/He) is introduced to the CO-TPSR system in the subsequent step, the formed C* may react with H* to form CH₄, while the dissociated O* may react with H* to form OH*. The similar position and shape of CH₄ and OH* peaks confirm their formation mechanism (Fig. 5E). The dissociated CO plays an important role in chain growth. The associated CO may insert into the chain growth, forming alcohol. The amount of dissociated and associated CO is essential for tuning the alcohol selectivity.

The CO₂ peak generates from the reaction between the associated CO* and the O element from the sample itself. The O element of the sample itself may react with H* to form H₂O. The O and C elements of the sample itself may interact with each other, forming CO. According to the literature [44,45], CH₄ is difficult to be adsorbed and it may be desorbed immediately once generated. Thus, the temperature of CH₄ desorption peak corresponds to the temperature of methane generation.

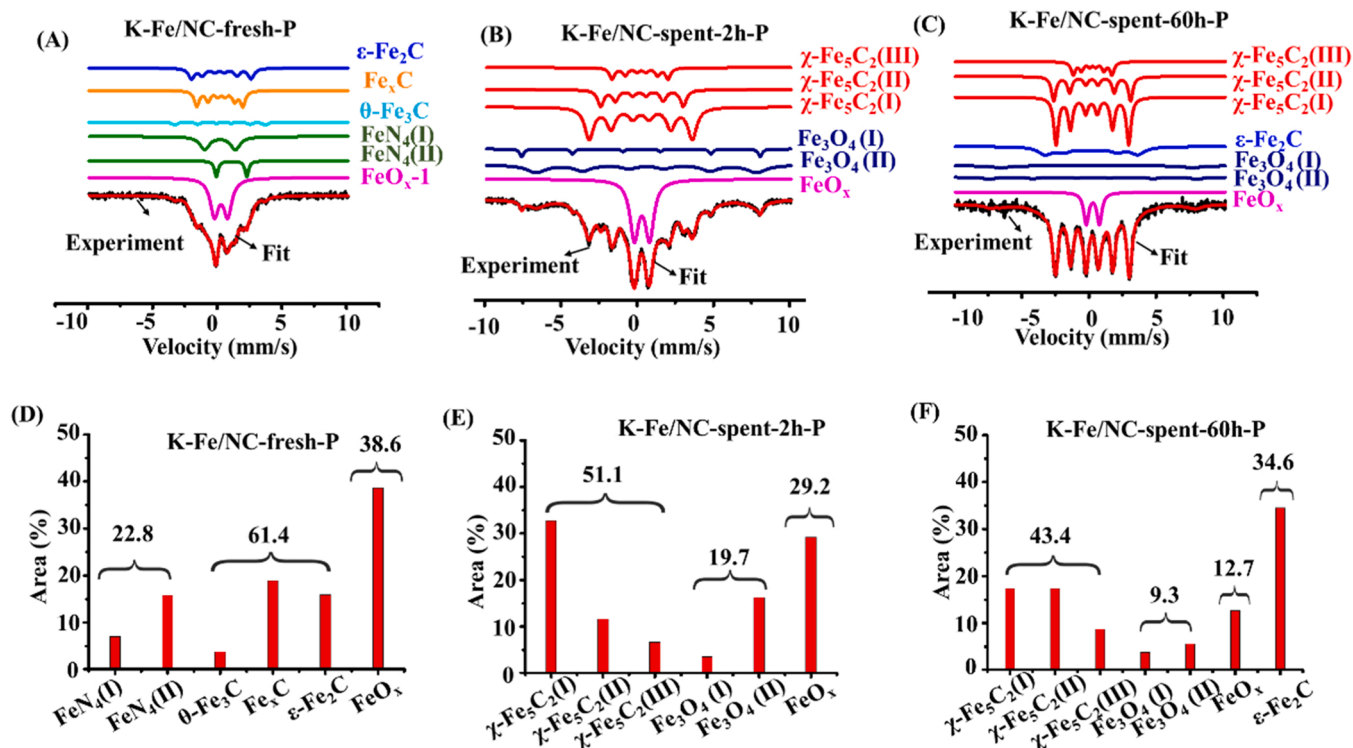


Fig. 4. The Mössbauer spectra for the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P (A), the K-Fe/NC-spent-2 h-P (B), and the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst (C). The content of various iron phases obtained from the Mössbauer spectra of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P (D), the K-Fe/NC-spent-2 h-P (E), and the K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P catalyst (F).

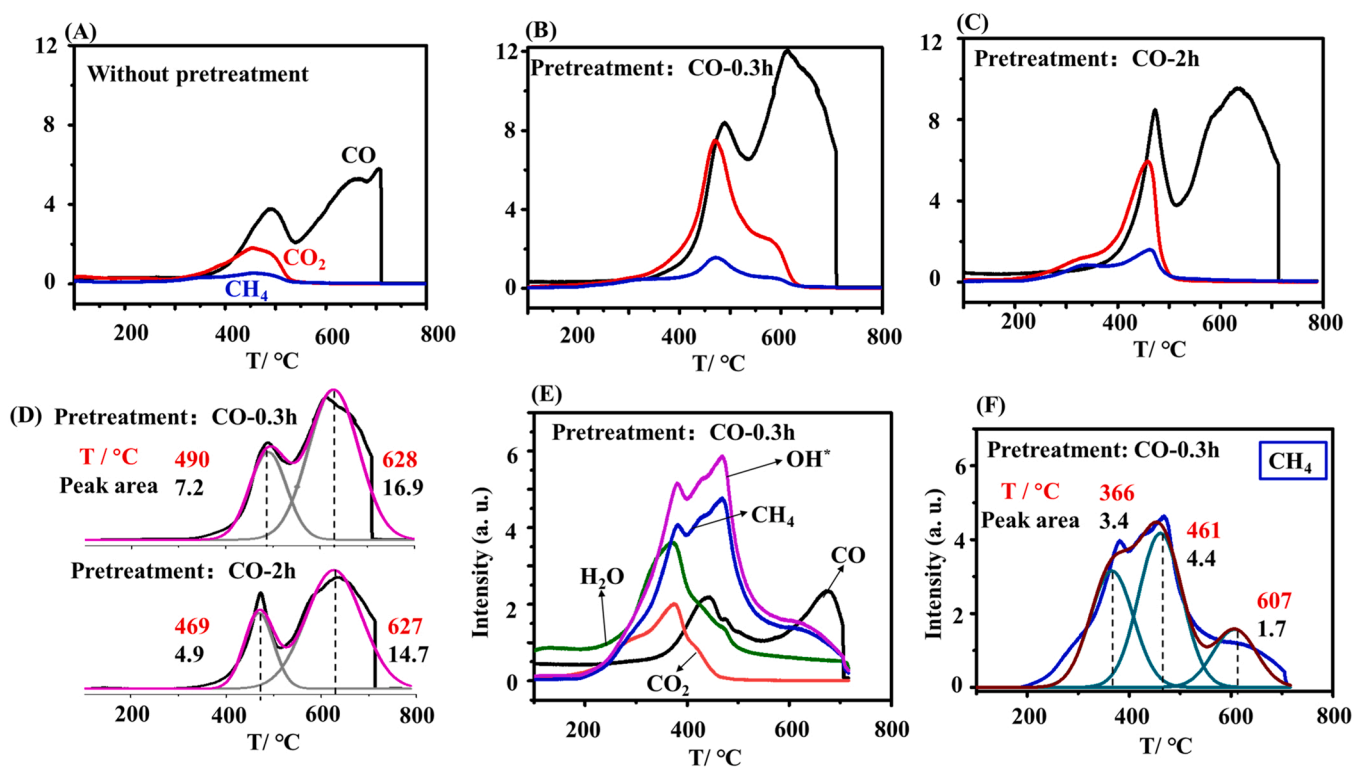


Fig. 5. CO-TPD and CO-TPSR results. The TPD profiles of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst without pretreatment (A), with CO pretreatment at 240 °C for 0.3 h (B) and 2 h (C). The peak area of CO from the TPD files (D). The CO-TPSR profiles of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P catalyst with CO pretreatment at 240 °C for 0.3 h (E). The peak area of CH_4 from the CO-TPSR profiles with CO pretreatment for 0.3 h (F). CO: black line. CO_2 : red line. CH_4 : blue line. OH^* : pink line. H_2O : green line.

The lower the temperature of CH₄ desorption peak, the easier the CO dissociation on the χ -Fe₅C₂ active sites. Meanwhile, the CH₄ desorption peak area corresponds to the amount of the dissociated CO, which is further correlated to the amount of the accessible χ -Fe₅C₂/ε-Fe₂C active sites. Similarly, the desorption peak area of CO₂ should correspond to the amount of accessible Fe₃O₄ sites (Table S5). The desorption temperatures of CH₄ exhibit an increasing trend with the increase of the pretreatment time, indicating that the CO dissociation becomes more difficult (Fig. 5F). This result may be related to higher carbon deposition induced by the increase of the pretreatment time, which is consistent with the CO-TPD results.

3.3. Structure-performance relationship

The CO conversion presents a downward trend at the initial stage of the reaction (Fig. 1A). There are many reasons for the decrease of activity, such as agglomeration of Fe nanoparticles, and carbon deposition [46]. The particle size distribution of the K-Fe/NC-fresh-P and K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P demonstrates that there is nearly no aggregation of metal particles during the reaction (Figs. 2D, 3B). CO-TPD and CO-TPSR results have confirmed that the longer CO pretreatment time may cause more severe carbon deposition (Fig. 5). The XPS confirms that the surface content of carbon increased from 17.4% of K-Fe/NC-fresh-P to 67.6% of K-Fe/NC-spent-60 h-P (Fig. S5). TG analysis shows 14.7% weight loss in the spent K-Fe/NC catalyst due to the carbon deposition (Fig. S11). The K element in K-Fe/NC catalyst also promotes carbon deposition. Moreover, the chain length of the paraffins in the oil product for the initial reaction stage is longer than that for the stable reaction stage (Fig. 1B, E) at a similar chain growth factor of about 0.61 for alcohols (Fig. 1C, F). It is supposed that the paraffin product is mainly produced on the χ -Fe₅C₂ / ε-Fe₂C active sites and the alcohol product on the χ -Fe₅C₂ / ε-Fe₂C and Fe₃O₄ dual active sites. The χ -Fe₅C₂ / ε-Fe₂C active sites are reducing as the reaction processes due to the carbon deposition, leading to the decreased CO conversion at the initial stage and less long chain length of paraffins in the stable stage (Fig. 1A, E). The relatively small amount of Fe₃O₄ active sites makes the alcohol chain length less affected by the decrease of the χ -Fe₅C₂ / ε-Fe₂C active sites.

The presence of nitrogen has been reported as an important factor affecting the catalytic performance of Fe-based catalysts. There is a certain amount of nitrogen in the K-Fe/NC catalyst. Fe@NC with N-doped carbon shell demonstrates higher activity and approximative selectivity compared to Fe@C with a pure carbon shell (Table S6) [47]. For the application of MOF derived Co@NC in FTS, it is assumed no correlation between the catalytic performances and the amount of nitrogen in the carbon matrix, which exists as pyridinic or graphitic nitrogen species [48]. The Fe/N-CNT catalysts with N doping demonstrate superior FTS activity than Fe/CNT catalysts with N doping [49]. The pyrrolic N in the N-doped carbon nanosheets facilitated iron carbonization and enhanced the activity [50]. According to the literature, the main contribution of N doping in FTS is related to its enhanced activity and olefin selectivity. The enhanced activity is generally derived from the facilitated iron carbonization induced by the N element. The enhanced olefin selectivity results from the N element serving as an electron donor to weaken the adsorption of hydrogen. It is supposed the N doped carbon matrix of the K-Fe/NC catalyst may enhance the activity and olefin selectivity to some extent.

Another element, which could affect the catalytic performance of K-Fe/NC catalyst is potassium. The K element is generally considered a strong electron donor to weaken the adsorption capability of the H₂ and enhance the olefin selectivity in FTS [10,51,52]. The potassium-promoted iron catalyst demonstrates lower methane selectivity, higher C₅ + selectivity and higher olefins/paraffins ratio than the pure iron catalyst (Table 1). The addition of potassium increases the amount of iron carbides formed in FTS, which further influences the catalytic performance [53,54]. Herein, the alcohol selectivity of K-Fe/NC catalyst is more relevant to the CO dissociation and association

that occurred in various iron phases. It is supposed that potassium plays a positive role in the formation of iron carbides. The relationship between the formed carbides and alcohol formation is emphasized for the K-Fe/NC catalyst. For the LTFTS process of the impregnated 15Fe/SiO₂ catalyst, the WGS reaction is relatively slow due to the kinetically unfavorable properties of WGS at low temperatures (Table 1) [31,55]. The addition of manganese and potassium can enhance the WGS reaction [30]. The WGS reaction can adjust the hydrogen content in syngas, especially benefitting the coal-based syngas with a low H/C ratio (H₂/CO = 0.5–0.7). The high rate of WGS reaction results in a hydrogen-rich environment which attributes to the short chain length of the oil product. Meanwhile, the high selectivity for long-chain alcohols with high contribution of C₂ + alcohols (95%) is another feature of the K-Fe/NC catalyst. The high selectivity for C₂ + alcohols could be assigned to the joint effect of N doped carbon and K promoter. As mentioned above, the K promoter can enhance the chain growth and prohibit the hydrogenation reaction. Hence, there are more long-chain hydrocarbon intermediates in the reaction atmosphere, the associated CO tends to insert into the long-chain hydrocarbon to form long-chain alcohols. Similarly, the small amount of N element in the K-Fe/NC may also play a positive role in the formation of long-chain alcohols. The preparation of the catalyst using PB precursor provides an opportunity to incorporate N and K in the close proximity to Fe, which should significantly increase the electron density over Fe catalyst and suppress deep hydrogenation to paraffins providing an opportunity to increase selectivity to long chain alcohols.

3.4. DFT calculations

Theoretical calculations are performed to investigate the mechanism of CO dissociation on the Fe₃O₄(311), ε-Fe₂C(101) and χ -Fe₅C₂(510) surfaces. Firstly, the behavior of CO adsorption has been investigated. The most stable configurations and the adsorption free energies of the intermediates involved in the direct or H-assisted CO dissociation are presented in Fig. S12 and Tables S7, S8. On Fe₃O₄(311), the most stable site of CO adsorption is Fe_{oct} at the step edges, the C-O bond length is elongated to 1.147 Å and the adsorption free energy is −43.9 kJ mol^{−1}. On ε-Fe₂C(101), CO prefers to adsorb at the Fe top site with the C-O bond length of 1.165 Å and the adsorption free energy of −67.3 kJ mol^{−1}. On χ -Fe₅C₂(510), CO is bounded to 3 F site via C atom with the adsorption free energy of −115.1 kJ mol^{−1} and the C-O bond length is elongated to 1.202 Å. Thus, the stronger CO adsorption energy can elongate the C-O bond length of CO, which follows the order: Fe₃O₄(311) < ε-Fe₂C(101) < χ -Fe₅C₂(510). The free energy profile of CO dissociation on the three surfaces and the optimized configurations of initial states, transition states and final states are presented. The direct CO dissociation on Fe₃O₄(311) is hindered by the high activation free energy of 594.0 kJ mol^{−1}, it is endothermic by 383.1 kJ mol^{−1} (Figs. 6A, D, S13). The overall activation free energy and reaction free energy of H-assisted CO dissociation is 429.6 and 209.5 kJ mol^{−1}. The direct CO dissociation and H-assisted CO dissociation have the highest activation free energy, namely, CO dissociation is very difficult to occur on Fe₃O₄(311) surface.

On ε-Fe₂C(101), H-assisted CO dissociation via CHO* intermediate has the overall activation free energy of 195.5 kJ mol^{−1} and the reaction free energy of 28.2 kJ mol^{−1}, which are very close to the direct CO dissociation (195.2 and 9.3 kJ mol^{−1}) (Fig. 6B, E). Thus, CO dissociation is carried out by both the direct and H-assisted CO dissociation mechanisms. On χ -Fe₅C₂(510), CO direct dissociation is more favorable in kinetics and thermodynamics compared to the H-assisted CO dissociation route (110.8 and −70.7 vs. 133.4 and −59.5 kJ mol^{−1}) (Fig. 6C, F). Based on the above analysis, CO association adsorption dominantly occurs on Fe₃O₄(311) surface instead of CO dissociation. Both direct CO dissociation and H-assisted CO dissociation are likely to occur on the ε-Fe₂C(101). Interestingly, χ -Fe₅C₂(510) surface is more active for direct CO dissociation.

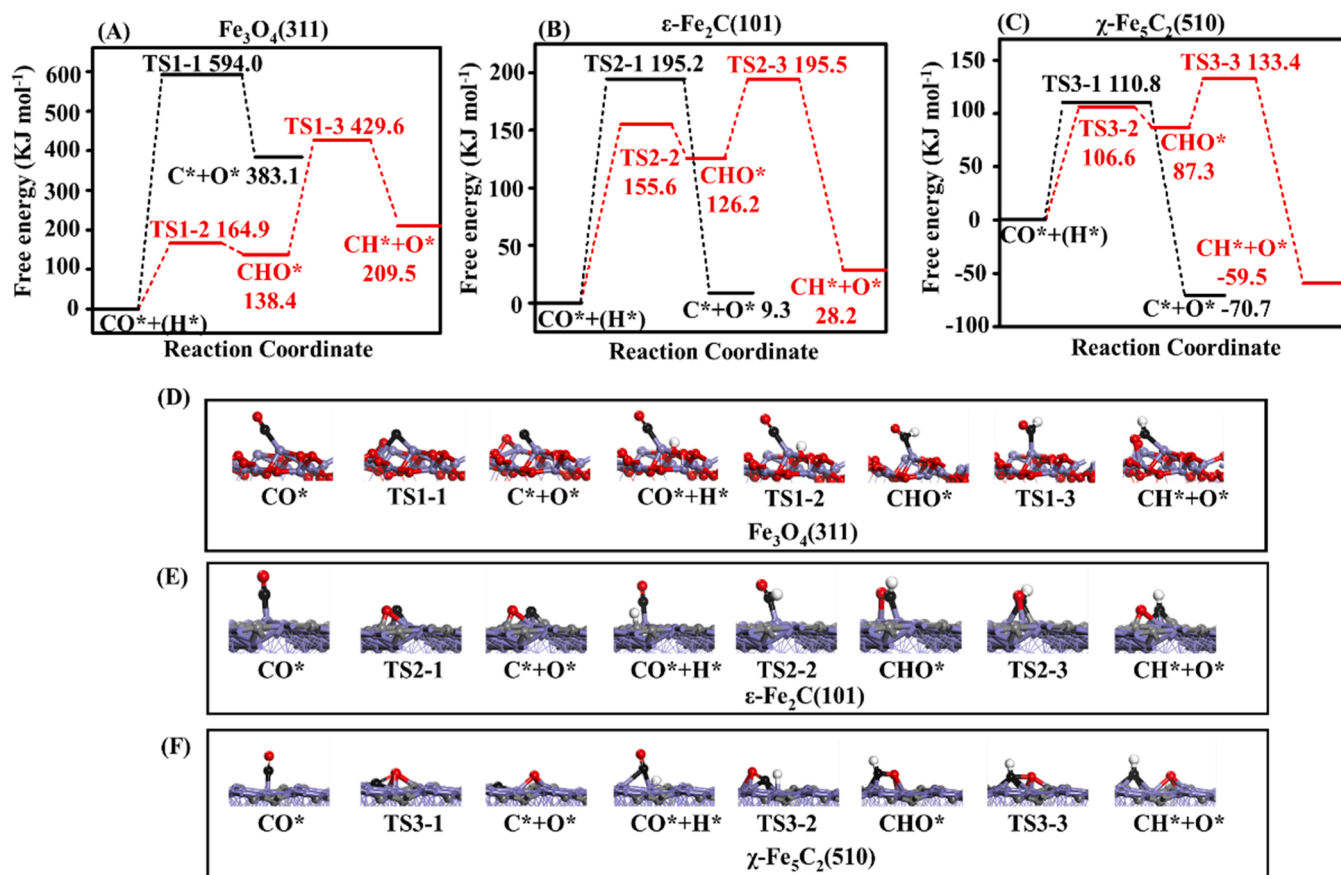


Fig. 6. Free energy profiles of the direct and H-assisted CO dissociation on the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(311)$ (A), $\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}(101)$ (B) and $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2(510)$ surfaces (C). Black line: the direct CO dissociation; Red line: H-assisted CO dissociation via CHO^* intermediate. Structures of the initial states, transitional states and final states involving in the direct or H-assisted CO dissociation on the $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4(311)$ (D), $\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}(101)$ (E) and $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2(510)$ (F) surfaces. Purple: Fe atom, red: O atom, gray: C atom, black: C atom in molecules, white: H atom.

3.5. The alcohol formation mechanism

The schematic diagram of the structure and phase evolution of K-Fe/NC catalyst is shown in Fig. 7A. The K-Fe/NC-fresh catalyst is obtained through PB in situ pyrolysis, which is mainly composed of $\text{Fe}_x\text{C}/\text{FeN}_x$ phases with particle sizes around 20 nm. Hence, the spent K-Fe/NC catalysts undergo the structure and phase evolution during FTS and the subsequent air passivation. The final sample demonstrates an A@B core-shell structure with the $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2/\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ particles as the core of A and the FeO_x as the shell of B. The core-shell structure of the spent iron particles in FTS has been noticed in the literature [12–15], yet it is still controversial about the exact structure of the spent iron catalysts. Herein, we confirmed the formation process of the core-shell structure during FTS and the passivation process. CO dissociation over $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2$ phase has been widely considered as the main reason for the chain growth of hydrocarbons [42,56,57]. The CO insertion mechanism has usually been known as the reason for alcohol formation in FTS [58–60]. The synergistic effect of dual active sites has been recognized as an alcohol formation mechanism in FTS over the activated carbon supported cobalt (Co/AC) catalyst. The Co_2C and metal Co species are responsible for CO association and dissociation, respectively, which serve as the dual active sites for alcohol formation [61,62]. However, only a few publications are showing the active sites for alcohol products over iron-based catalysts.

Fe_3O_4 has been considered to be the active site for reverse water gas shift reaction (RWGS) in CO_2 hydrogenation [63,64]. Fe_3O_4 is also active for WGS reaction and high CO_2 selectivity has been observed for this K-Fe/NC catalyst (Table 1). DFT calculation confirms the CO

association on Fe_3O_4 and CO dissociation on $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2$ and $\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ phases. Hence, the alcohol formation mechanism of the K-Fe/NC catalyst is proposed (Fig. 7B). CO dissociation occurs on the $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2/\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ active sites forming C^* and O^* , and CO association occurs on the Fe_3O_4 active sites forming CO^* . The alcohols are produced on the interface of $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2/\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ and Fe_3O_4 through the CO^* insertion into the chain growth. Simultaneously, the formed CO^* also reacts with OH^* to generate CO_2 and H_2 , resulting in a hydrogen-rich reaction environment. Hence, the synergistic effect of the $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2/\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ and Fe_3O_4 dual active sites benefits alcohol formation. Due to the high alcohol selectivity for K-Fe/NC catalyst, it is considered that the proportion of $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2/\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}$ and Fe_3O_4 accessible active sites seem to be responsible for high alcohol selectivity in FTS. It might be further endeavors for promoting alcohol selectivity through increasing the amount of Fe_3O_4 accessible active sites close to Fe carbide to induce more insertion of associated CO into the chain growth.

4. Conclusion

The K-Fe/NC catalyst has been designed and fabricated through PB pyrolysis, displaying low-cost and scalable-produced features. The in situ activated K-Fe/NC catalyst demonstrated alcohol selectivity as high as 30% in FTS, with the alcohol distribution of 5% methanol, 56% $\text{C}_2\text{-C}_5$ alcohols, and 39% $\text{C}_6\text{-C}_{13}$ alcohols. The iron time yield of the K-Fe/NC catalysts is $11 \text{ mmol}_{\text{CO}} \text{ g}_{\text{Fe}}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$. The K-Fe/NC catalyst undergoes the structure and phase evolution during FTS and the subsequent air passivation, demonstrating an A@B core-shell structure with the $\chi\text{-Fe}_5\text{C}_2/\epsilon\text{-Fe}_2\text{C}/\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ particles as the core of A and the FeO_x as the shell

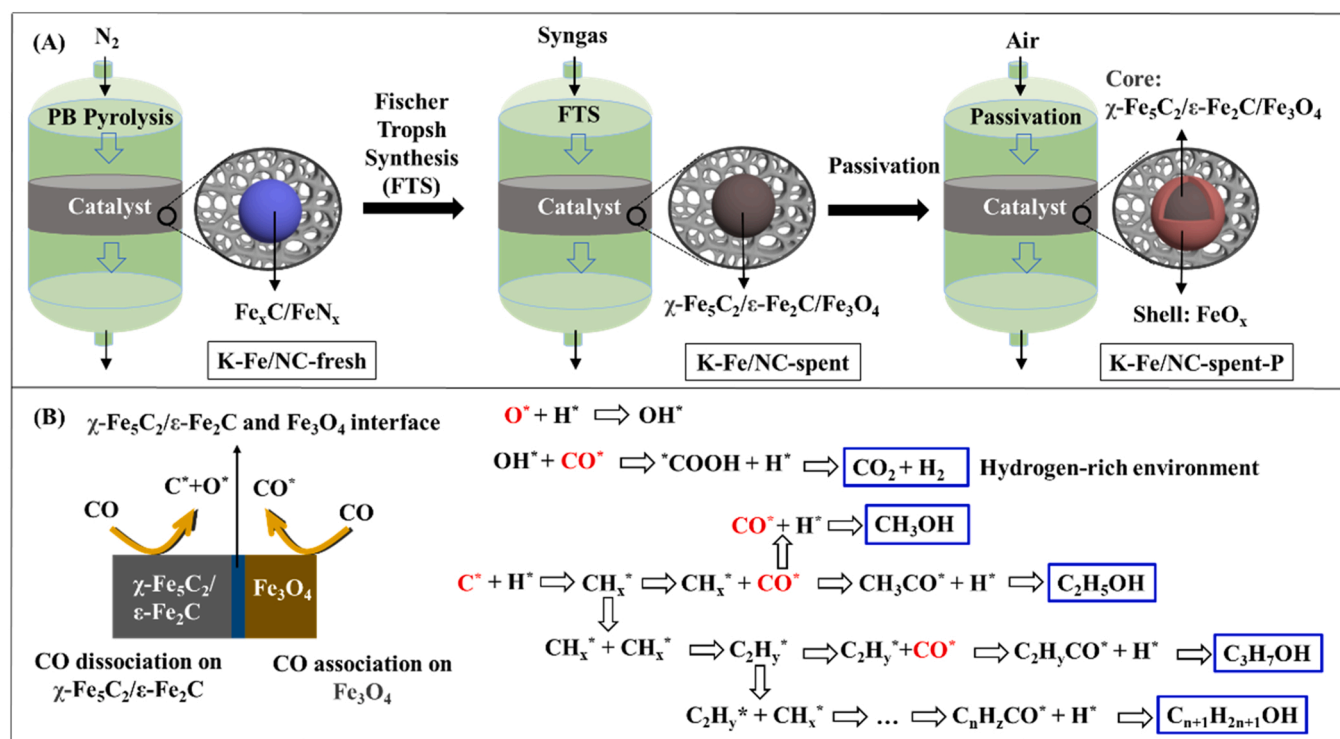


Fig. 7. Schematic diagram of the structure and phase evolution of the K-Fe/NC catalyst during FTS reaction and the air passivation process (A). The active sites and the corresponding alcohol formation mechanism on the K-Fe/NC catalyst (B).

of B. The TPD/TPSR results and theoretical calculations confirmed CO underwent CO dissociation on the $\gamma-Fe_5C_2/\epsilon-Fe_2C$ active sites and experienced CO association on the Fe_3O_4 active sites. The alcohol formation was benefited from the synergistic effect of $\gamma-Fe_5C_2/\epsilon-Fe_2C$ and Fe_3O_4 dual active sites, and the alcohol was formed through the insertion of the associated CO into the chain growth. This work is of fundamental importance in the understanding of the alcohol formation mechanism in FTS. Furthermore, it provides significant insight into the development of low-cost and highly efficient iron-based catalysts for alcohols in FTS.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Y.P. Chen conceived the idea for the project and wrote the manuscript. L.X. Ma and R.G. Zhang performed the DFT calculation. J.T. Wei performed the catalytic preparation and catalytic test experiments. R.P. Ye performed the catalyst characterization. V.V. Ordonsky and J. Liu conceived the idea for the project and supervised the project.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.121393](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.121393).

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